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tion is paid to the subject, the rarer will be its occurrence; and, if there be any truth at all in the numerous theories presented to us, it may be simplified into this: that, by an unnatural and excessive use of alcohol, the living human body *may* become susceptible of ignition and combustion to an extraordinary degree, in which case its unctuous particles will serve to feed the flames. But this can only be effected under peculiar circumstances, and by external aid. And for any thing beyond this point, we can find no support in physiology or elsewhere.

We must apologize for having dwelt so long upon a theme so unsatisfactory. It is not agreeable to reflect on the possibility of one's flaming out like a lime-kiln, as a necessary sequence to an unknown quantity of sherry or madeira. The philosophy of Captain Macheath's song in the Beggar's Opera,

"A man can die
Much bolder with brandy,"

is not a sound philosophy at all, in this view of the case. But the question arose so naturally, from the volumes under examination, and is, besides, one so novel to most readers, that we thought it well to devote a few pages to its elucidation.

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- Art. VI. — 1. *Italian Irrigation: a Report on the Agricultural Canals of Piedmont and Lombardy, addressed to the Honorable the Court of Directors of the East India Company.* By R. BAIRD SMITH, F. G. S., Captain in the Army, and First Lieutenant of Engineers Bengal Presidency. Printed by Order. London and Edinburgh. 1852. 2 vols. 8vo.
2. *The Calcutta Review*, Vol. XII. July – December, 1849. Art. III. *Canals of Irrigation in the N. W. Provinces.* Calcutta, 1849. 8vo.
3. *Notes on the North Western Provinces of India.* By CHARLES RAIKES, Magistrate and Collector of Mynpoorie. London. 1852. 8vo.

THE traveller in India, after passing the holy city of Be-

nares, finds himself, as he approaches the sacred confluence of the Ganges and the Jumna, at Allahabad, entering upon a country differing not only in its natural features, but also in the appearance and character of its inhabitants, from the vast plain of Bengal, which he has left behind. He is now in that division of the British Empire in the East which is known as the North-Western Provinces. These provinces, lying for the most part in the valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna, a great portion of their territory being situated between these two rivers, contain, in their full extent, somewhat more than seventy thousand square miles, and are occupied by a population of not less than 25,000,000 inhabitants. They are at once the most important, most interesting, and best governed part of India. Reaching from the cold summits of the Himmalayas, in which the great rivers have their source, down to the alluvial level of Central India, they exhibit many varieties of soil and climate, of race, language, and customs. The various tribes of Hindus, — Brahmin and Rajput, Jat, Goojur, and Kachi, — and the Mahommedan descendants of the old Mahommedan conquerors, though not kept apart from each other by any natural divisions of the country, are yet separated by differences in origin, tradition, and habit, and afford curious contrasts in their dispositions and modes of life. Benares, Muttra, and Hurdwar, three of the most holy and characteristic places of Hindu superstition, frequented by pilgrims from all parts of India, — Delhi and Agra, the two chief and most famous cities that remain to mark the Musulman invasion and occupation of Hindostan, all lie within the limits of these provinces.

From the days of Tamerlane to those of Nadir Shah, this tract has been the great battle-field of the East. In early times, conqueror after conqueror swept over it, leaving desolation to mark his course, till at length the foreign Mahommedan rule was established, and, for a few short centuries, it became the seat of all the fancied wonders and the real splendors of the courts of the Great Moguls. But with the decline of their power during the last century, the country sank into a state of utter disorganization, and became the scene of perpetual strife. About fifty years ago, it was reached in the

progress of English conquests; the rule of the East India Company was extended over it, and since then it has enjoyed a period of unexampled prosperity and improvement.

It is in this territory, full of the finest memorials of Hindu and Mahommedan supremacy, that the English have been most successful in their experiment of governing the people of India,—and there they have commenced and completed works that afford splendid and undeniable proof of their understanding, to use the words of Sir William Jones, “that the principal object of every government should be the happiness of the governed.”

In view of the immense difficulties, with which they have had to contend, the highest credit is due to those civil and military officers in the East India Company’s service, by whose well-directed efforts the improvement in this part of India has been chiefly effected. Having to contend against the obstacle of distance from the source of authority in England; having to reconcile the interests of the conquerors and the conquered—interests too frequently deemed adverse to each other; having to grope ignorantly, step by step, through the most complicated intricacies, to a knowledge of the characters, customs, and prejudices of those whom they were governing; having to adapt their regulations of government to native East Indian comprehension, and to a form of civilization essentially different from their own; having to overcome the distrust and dread of authority, which was the legacy of former bad governments; and, hardest of all, having the means that might have been employed in the improvement of the country, often drained off from it into the seive of distant war;—notwithstanding all this, these men have laid securely the foundation of a continually increasing prosperity, and have done more for the welfare of the people in the last fifty years than the Mahommedan rulers accomplished in five hundred.

It would be impossible, within the narrow limits of these pages, to give a complete account of the various measures for the public good that have been undertaken, during this period, in the North-Western Provinces. We should like to describe, for it deserves to be known, the revenue system, based upon an admirable land settlement, by which the rights of

every landholder and cultivator have been accurately determined, with the most careful regard to ancient prescriptions and rights, while they are secured by an annual registry; and this, too, over a country as large as England and Scotland put together, "held by peasant proprietors, parcelled out into minute divisions, and with an agricultural population of between fourteen and fifteen millions." And we would willingly give an account, in connection with the land revenue system, of the educational scheme of village schools and vernacular instruction that has been adopted within a few years past, and which proposes to engage the self-interest of the people in the attempt to remove their ignorance.* But leaving these, and other similar topics, it is our present object to give a description of public works of another kind, interesting from their direct effect upon the prosperity and improvement of the country, namely, the Canals of Irrigation, which are now being extended over these provinces.†

"Water, Sir, is a great thing," said a poor Hindu cultivator, whose bullocks were drawing it from his well; "Water, Sir, is a great thing." How great a thing, indeed, we doubt if any one can fairly estimate, who has not seen the effects of a tropical drought, or, at least, experienced the length of a hot, dry season, extending, as in India, for month after month. In such a climate, a supply of water is of the first necessity in agriculture. Its presence or absence is the difference be-

* The inhabitants who possess rights of property in the soil compose a vast majority of the adult population. Their rights being annually recorded, it is, of course, an object of desire to every proprietor to be able to consult the register, to see that no mistake or fraud has been committed. "The means are thus afforded," says the present excellent Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, Mr. Thomason, in a resolution of the 9th of February, 1850, "for setting before the people the practical bearing of learning on the safety of the rights in land, which they most highly prize." *Calcutta Review*, No. xxvii. July, 1850, p. 139.

† In doing this, we shall follow, for the most part, an article upon the subject which appeared in the *Calcutta Review*, for July, 1849. It is, as Mr. Kaye has justly called it, in his recent valuable work on the East India Company, "a very mine of information," in regard to these canals. On its first appearance in India, it excited much attention, from the ability with which it was written, and from the novelty, even to most Indian residents, of the facts which it detailed. It has since been reprinted, with some alterations, by its distinguished author, Captain Baird Smith, in an Appendix to his important work on "Italian Irrigation," a book of which it is pleasant to regard the article as, in some degree, the origin.

tween fertility and barrenness — between plenty and starvation. The more ample the supply, the more abundant are the returns to the husbandman, and the better their quality. In a country like the North-West Provinces, where so large a proportion of the inhabitants depend for their subsistence upon the immediate produce of the land, having no stores laid up as provision against bad seasons, and no means with which, at such a time, to purchase food, the failure of water is but another name for famine. From the very earliest times, the need was felt of a more regular and certain supply than that furnished by the rains and the rivers.* The first process of agriculture, after the sowing of the seed, was the watering of the earth in which it lay. Very soon, wells and tanks were dug, and dams constructed, with more industry than skill, by which the dangers of drought might be warded off.† But these could be of but very limited operation, and the necessity of works upon a larger scale, and of more general usefulness, must have been early experienced, though the troubles to which the country was exposed, and the want of sufficient scientific knowledge, long prevented their execution.

The first canal for irrigation, upon an extensive scale, of which there are accounts, was constructed about the middle of the 14th century, by order of Feroze Toghlak, one of the most enlightened of the early Mahomedan princes. Fifty years later, a curious passage in that remarkable book, the *Institutes of Tamerlane*, shows the disposition of the great devastator in a somewhat amiable light, and proves his desire to spread the blessings of artificial irrigation: “And I ordained whoever undertook the cultivation of waste lands, or built an aqueduct, or made a canal, or planted a grove, or restored culture to a deserted district, that in the first year nothing should be taken from him, and that in the second year, whatever the

* In the *Institutes of Menu*, we find reference to dams and pools for securing water. Ch. ix. § 279.

† Masonry wells are common in every part of India. It is a pleasant thing to hear the husbandmen singing, as they draw the water for their fields. There is a tradition that Tanseyn, the famous old singer of Delhi, used to spend much of his time in listening to these songs of the well, that he might weave the simple airs into his more finished melodies. So beautiful was his singing that the river Jumna is said to have stopped in her course to hear him.

subject voluntarily offered, should be received, and that in the third year, the duties should be collected according to the regulation." But the stream in the canal of Feroze Shah soon ceased to flow; and it was not till more than 200 years afterwards, in the reign of the wisest of the Great Moguls, Akbar, that, as it appears, an order went forth that the channel should be dug out wider and deeper than before, so that the water might flow in it, in a perennial stream, to the cities of Hansi and Hissar, lying in the arid plains to the west of the Jumna.

About the time of the landing of the Pilgrims and the settlement of Massachusetts, the magnificence of the court of Delhi reached its height, during the lavish rule of Shah Jehan. The most beautiful remains of Mussulman dominion in India, the great palace of modern Delhi, the Jumma Musjid, out-rivalling all other mosques, the Taj Mahal at Agra, all were built by the order of this luxurious and tasteful monarch; and, with characteristic largeness of design, a canal on a far ampler scale than any hitherto attempted, was brought from the line of the old work of Feroze Shah down to the royal city of Delhi. Wonderful traditions remain of the benefit which the villages along its banks realized from its fertilizing waters. Its stream flowed through the splendid city, branching into innumerable channels, watering the gardens and supplying the fountains of the chief men of the state, and flowing through "the great halls and courts and private apartments of the imperial palace," where, in the exquisite white marble inner hall of audience, may be seen, to this day, the polished but now empty channel in which the water ran, cooling the hot air, and hastening along to the thick shade of the adjoining gardens.

During the same reign, another canal was dug on the east of the Jumna; but engineering difficulties, beyond the skill of those days, apparently prevented the attempt to maintain it for more than a single season. The western canal, on the contrary, remained efficient "for about a century and a quarter after its construction in 1626." Gradually, however, with the decline of the Mogul power in the 18th century, all the public works of the country fell into decay; and for nearly half a century before the British conquest, the people had ceased

to derive any benefit from the irrigation of their fields by the water from these canals.

The English government was hardly secure in its possession of the North-West Provinces before the question of restoring these works was brought up. But, although several propositions were made, so little was the importance of the matter then understood, that no considerable steps were taken in it till the year 1815, when the Marquis of Hastings, then Governor-General of India, having had his attention directed to the subject during a tour in the North, wrote, urging upon the East India Directors to authorize the necessary expenditures for the reopening of the Western Jumna or Delhi Canal. The suggestion of the Governor-General was approved. The work was commenced in 1817, and in 1821 the waters once more entered Delhi. But "the original views of Government and of its officers were very restricted. Doubts were entertained of the ultimate success of the restored canal. Expensive works were discouraged; and the only object contemplated, at this time, was to maintain a small supply in the Delhi branch. All the works undertaken were, accordingly, of a temporary and most imperfect character; earthen bunds were used for carrying the canal across the beds of the intersecting mountain streams; few, if any, bridges were considered necessary, the canal being fordable throughout; and natural channels were invariably taken possession of, in spite of their defective levels and tortuous courses." The evils of this system soon became manifest; and, upon the appointment, in 1823, of Colonel Colvin, of the Bengal Engineers, ("an officer of eminent professional talent, of great energy of character, and of unwearied zeal," who had previously been engaged in the restoration of Feroze Shah's Canal,) "to the superintendency of the works of irrigation generally, throughout the Delhi territory," a beginning was made towards rectifying the mistakes which had their origin in the narrow views and false economy with which the work of reconstruction had been commenced. The progress of the improvements was, however, slow. The Government, unwilling to engage in large expenditures, hesitated about adopting the excellent plans presented by Colonel Colvin; and it was not till some years

had passed that the most important of his projects were sanctioned. Gradually, since that period, the canal has arrived at a state of considerable efficiency, and it is to be hoped that the government has learned that it is the poorest economy to hesitate in undertaking the works necessary to bring it to a condition of still higher usefulness.

Without entering into the history of the reopening, or, more properly, the reconstruction, of the Eastern Jumna Canal, through which the water flowed in 1830, we proceed to consider, more in detail, the nature of these works, and the results which have sprung from them.

The united length of the lines to the west of the river Jumna,* is four hundred and forty-five miles, exclusive of the main watercourses thrown off on both sides. The great number and variety of works on them may be judged of from the fact that they are spanned by one hundred and fifty-nine masonry bridges, fifty-four of timber, and one suspension bridge; and that there are six hundred and seventy-two outlets for irrigation, or about three to every two miles of their whole course.† The total area of the district under the influence of the canals, is about 860,000 acres, and of this somewhat more than 350,000 are actually watered. "No village," says Captain Smith, "actually waters its whole area, part being in fallow, or waste, or occupied by inferior crops not requiring water."‡

* We have to use the name of this river so often, and it is a name so unfamiliar to most of our readers, that they will allow us to recall to them that it is the stream on which Delhi, Muttra, and Agra are situated; that it has its source among the eternal snows of the Himalayas, and unites, as we have before said, with the Ganges, at Allahabad. It is a famous river in Hindu legend and history. In the mythology of the country, Jumna is, according to Mr. Hamilton, in his *Useful Gazetteer*, "the sister of the judge of the infernal regions, and the daughter of the sun; so that," as he unexpectedly adds, "her lineage and connections are very respectable."

† We take this statement of the number of the different works on the canal, from Captain Smith's article, which was written in 1849. It is probable that the works have become still more numerous since that time.

‡ "A village, so called, in the revenue parlance of the North-Western Provinces, is a tract of land with fixed name and boundaries, whether it contain what, in England, is properly called a village, or not. It may be inhabited, or it may be *be-churagh*, (without a lamp,) as those estates are called which contain no human habitation; it may contain one cluster of houses, or many." *Raikes's Notes on the N. W. Provinces*, p. 119.

But it must not be supposed that the blessings of irrigation are confined to the one half or one third of the village area actually watered. The water is used, as far as it is needed, to secure sufficient harvests for the whole village community, and its indirect benefits reach much beyond the limit of the irrigated fields.

A striking proof of the beneficial effects which have followed the opening of the canals, is the gradual increase of population in the districts through which they flow, as marked by its excess over that of the unirrigated portions. Without entering into the details of the separate districts, it appears that the average rate of population in the irrigated, as compared with the unirrigated tracts, is as 275 to 158 to the square mile, or as 1. to .57; and it is an illustrative fact that the greatest discrepancy occurs in the least fertile portion of the country, the sandy district of Hissar, where the proportion is as 142 to 87. Thus, taking the country through, villages directly benefited by the canal, support a population nearly, if not by this time more than, two fifths greater than that of villages not visited by the waters. And the fact becomes the more impressive when it is remembered that this difference has been created within the last thirty years.

The total expenditure on the Western Jumna Canals, including the cost of the original works, the current repairs, and the salaries of the officers composing the canal establishment, had amounted, in 1847, to 3,536,629 rupees;* while the revenue from them, increasing with much regularity from year to year, till, in 1846 - 7, it reached the sum of 302,885 rupees,—had attained, in total amount, to the astonishing sum of 4,206,078 rupees,—thus paying for all the expenses of construction and maintenance, and leaving a surplus in the hands of government of nearly 670,000 rupees.

The chief source of this annual revenue is, of course, the water-rent, which is levied in two ways, either by a certain rate, according to the size of the irrigation outlet,—or by a rate on the actual extent of the land watered,—a method

* The rupee may be accurately enough estimated at the value of half a dollar. The sum above would, therefore, be 1,768,315 dollars.

vastly inferior to the first.* In addition to the revenue from this source, a considerable sum is annually derived from the rent of flour-mills, from the watering of cattle in some pastoral districts, and from transit duties upon rafts of timber floated down from the rich and most beautiful forests of Deyrah Dhoon. These duties, which are very light, amounted, in 1820-21, to the grand total of fourteen rupees; while, in 1846-47, they reached the sum of 6,800 rupees, and even this was less than the amount collected in some previous years. The growth of the revenue, from this source, is a direct and simple illustration of "the improvement in the condition of the people in the canal districts," as it shows "the largely increased consumption of timber among them in the construction of substantial and comfortable dwelling-houses."

Still another source of revenue is the sale of produce from the plantations that have been made along the banks of the canals. Trees, furnishing wood of value for economical purposes, have been set out, adorning the lines of the works, furnishing a pleasant shade for travellers, and replacing, in some degree, the groves which were destroyed over a large part of this territory by the Sikh, Mahratta, and other troops, during the general scramble for the remnants of the power of the old Moguls. The revenue derived from these plantations has already more than covered all expenditure upon them, and their value increases with their age.

A small sum annually accrues from "fines levied for breaches of the canal regulations," and is the only portion of the income that may be expected to diminish, rather than to increase, in succeeding years.

Such are the elements making up the direct revenue from the canals; but this is not all the return that the government receives from them. Much the largest part of the resources of the state is derived from the land-tax, which may be roughly estimated as equivalent in value to one third of the gross pro-

* As we intend to present, here, only a popular view of these great works, we will not enter into the questions connected with the levying of the water-rent. They are, however, among the most important in the practice of irrigation. We must refer those desirous of further information, to the second volume of Captain Baird Smith's "Italian Irrigation," where the whole subject is thoroughly discussed.

duce of the land.* Now it is found, on comparison of the tax paid by canal villages, and that paid by those beyond the reach of the canals, that the use of irrigation has greatly increased the land revenue. So much, indeed, has the regular supply of water raised the profits of agriculture, by securing the certainty and the abundance of the crops, that the total increase of revenue from the land due to the Western Jumna Canals may be fairly reckoned at an annual sum of 300,000 rupees. When this amount is added to that of the direct canal revenue, "we have a net income on the invested capital of thirty-six per cent."

The growth of the revenue from water-rent, although regularly progressive, was at first very slow; but, in the year 1837-8, it suddenly rose to an amount double what it had ever attained except in the immediately preceding year, and almost to twice what it had then been. During this year, the rains utterly failed, or fell in such scanty showers as served only to excite and mock the anxious expectations of the people. Over the whole North-West Provinces the terrible drought prevailed. The land became a desert of dust. The seed died in the ground; the grass withered and dried up; and a fearful period of absolute famine set in. The people, dependent on their annual harvests for support, were driven to the extremest pitch of destitution. Whole villages were depopulated. The bands that unite men together were broken. Parents sold their children for a morsel of food. The bonds of superstition and immemorial custom snapped in pieces. The rage of hunger destroyed even the distinctions of caste, and the Bramin braved all the horrors of pollution, as he devoured food that had been defiled by the touch of the lowest of the human race. Substances, the most revolting, were greedily swallowed, to allay the pangs of starvation. The cattle died in the fields that refused them nourishment. Public and private benevolence stood almost without help or hope before the awful extent of desolation. In six districts, the govern-

* The land revenue of the North-Western Provinces amounted, in 1846-7, to 40,529,921 rupees. This was more than four fifths of the government income for the year. *Calcutta Review*, No. xxiv. p. 416: "The Settlement of the North West Provinces."

ment remitted, at once, nearly one half of the land-tax, and, "in the seven succeeding years, a farther reduction was made still larger in amount," so that the total loss of revenue, in these districts alone, amounted to more than one million of pounds sterling. "Nor was this all. Such was the extent of land thrown out of tillage, and the reduction of rent in the remainder, owing to the deficiency of cultivators, and such the impoverishment of the people, that it was necessary not only to refrain from the rigid exaction of the government demand, but also to relinquish, absolutely, [for the period for which a settlement had been made] part of its amount." *

During this fatal year, as we have just stated, the use of the works for irrigation was vastly extended; and, wherever the streams of the canals flowed, was plenty in the midst of the surrounding distress. The gross value of the autumn and spring crops, grown during this season of famine, on land watered by the Western Jumna Canals, — the greater part of which would have been totally unproductive without the use of canal water, — has been estimated, from actual measurement, at 14,628,000 rupees. Of this sum, "about one tenth was paid to government, as land and water-rent, while the remainder supported in comfort, during the period of devastating famine, the inhabitants of nearly five hundred villages." As Captain Smith justly says, "any more striking illustration of the social and fiscal value of canals, could not be given."

The Eastern Jumna Canal, which, as has been stated, was opened in 1830, has, during its shorter period of operation, been productive of results similar to those which have marked the existence of the larger western works. Indeed, in some respects, the results from it have been even more remarkable, owing to the much greater efficiency in the distribution, and economy in the use, of its water. Its length is about 150 miles, and it has a discharge of 538 cubic feet per second, which affords the means of watering 160,000 acres. For six years previous to 1849, it was under the superintendence of Captain Baird Smith, from whose treatise we have so

* *Calcutta Review* Vol. xii. p. 456: "Settlement of the North-West Provinces."

often quoted, and, under his able management, it was brought to a state of efficiency, such as had been reached before on no Indian canal. He describes it happily, with a mixture of pride and enthusiasm equally agreeable and natural in one who had had so large a share in extending its benefits, and for whom it had so long been the scene of active labors. "Most beautiful it truly is," he says, "with its broad road, smooth as an English lawn; its double rows of trees drooping over the stream; its long, graceful sweeps; its rich bordering of most luxuriant crops; its neat station-houses; and the peculiar care with which all its works are maintained. It is, certainly, one of the most interesting and attractive of Indian sights. The gem of the whole is the southern division, where, for nearly sixty miles, the visitor passes through a country which is the Garden of the North-West, and finds constant cause to admire the beautiful, although limited, scenes, that every turn of the canal brings before him."

There has been a regular progressive increase in the use of the water, and, consequently, a gradually increasing revenue. In the famine year the rent at once nearly doubled, and the value of the crops, saved by the use of the waters, was about 5,000,000 rupees. The cost of the canal, owing to the greater difficulties in its construction, and the greater completeness in its works, particularly in the extent of its main subsidiary watercourses, by which the best distribution of the water is secured, has been more than double that of the Western Jumna.* But, notwithstanding this greater outlay, the government receives an annual income from canal returns and increased land revenue, of at least twenty-four per cent. on the original investment. The increase of population in the irrigated districts has been not less marked on the east than on the west of the Jumna, and in all directions the benefits, flowing from this canal, seem to be as inexhaustible as its waters.

We may pass over the miniature canals of the Deyrah Dhoon, with only a reference to their existence in this rich, luxuriant Himalayan valley, where the beauties of a tropi-

* The cost of the Western Jumna Canals was 2557 rupees per mile; that of the Eastern Jumna, 5640 rupees.

cal and a temperate region are combined to enhance the charm of one of the most magnificent of landscapes.

“We have now completed,” to quote again from the historian of the canals, “our account of existing Canals of Irrigation in the provinces subject to the government of Agra. We find, that since these works first occupied the attention of the British authorities, they have expended upon them a sum of nearly £557,000, and have drawn from them, in direct canal revenue, nearly £546,000. They have brought under the influence of irrigation, and secured, in a condition of the highest productiveness, an area of 1,300,000 acres, yielding produce to the annual value of not less than two and a half millions sterling, and supporting a population of 600,000 souls, of which a considerable proportion has been reclaimed from habits subversive of all good government, destructive to themselves, and mischievous to their neighbors. Great tracts of land, formerly waste, now sustain a dense, industrious, and thriving peasantry, well supplied with every material comfort they desire, placed beyond the reach of the vicissitudes of the seasons, bearing, with use to themselves, a proportion of the state burdens considerably in excess of that imposed upon their less favored fellow-subjects, and so sensible of the advantages they enjoy, that, even in the very worst of those localities, where inconvenience has arisen from the imperfections of the canal works, the general superiority of their circumstances is willingly admitted, and the desire for canal irrigation unhesitatingly expressed. So long as the control of the canals is vested in the local government, the progress of improvement will be encouraged to its utmost extent; and we doubt not but that, as each year passes by, the admitted evils will gradually become less and less in number and extent, until, under the skilful employment of liberal expenditure, they shall have entirely disappeared.”

Such a statement, as the preceding, of the advantages that have been derived from existing canals, is a good introduction to the still more interesting part of our subject, — the account of those in progress of execution by the British government, — and chiefly of the great Ganges Canal.

The idea of making the great sacred river the source of prosperity and civilization to the people who had so long regarded it with superstitious veneration, of making it pour benignant waters over the fields of those who had so long ignorantly worshipped its unused stream, was one that possesses

a fine element of poetry, which will always add a beauty to its noble practical application. The first suggestion of it seems to be due to Colonel Colvin, of whom we have already spoken; but it was left to Colonel Cautley, whose name will be inseparably connected with the work as long as even a remembrance of it exists, to make the first surveys, and to prove the practicability of the undertaking. The contrasts presented during the famine of 1837-8 between the districts through which the existing canals passed, and the other portions of the country, were such as to direct the attention of government in the most forcible manner to the importance of extending irrigation. The necessary surveys on the upper part of the line of the proposed Ganges Canal were accordingly ordered, and in 1840 Colonel Cautley presented his first report, showing that no insuperable difficulties existed, and urging that the canal should be constructed on the largest possible scale, so as to appropriate the whole visible stream at Hurdwar, its proposed head. In the course of the next year, the Court of Directors gave their approval to the work, and directed that a committee of engineer officers should be associated with Colonel Cautley, to determine on the best method of carrying the project into effect. This committee "submitted their report in February, 1842, and recommended that the canal should be constructed of such dimensions as would admit of its discharge being 6,750 cubic feet per second, which supply was considered sufficient for the irrigation of the whole Doab," that is, the country lying between the Ganges, Hindun, and Jumna, and forming the principal part of the North-West Provinces. But orders for the prosecution of the work had hardly been given when Lord Ellenborough reached India as Governor-General, and put a stop to all measures of peaceful improvement, while he played the poor, low part of a pompous military chief. Through the discouraging years of his administration, no advance was made on the canal. At length, in 1847, Lord Ellenborough having been succeeded by Lord Hardinge, a man of a different stamp, arrangements were made for the vigorous prosecution of the works; and, wrote Captain Smith in 1848, "twelve years after the first line of levels for the project had been taken, the Ganges Canal may

be said to be fairly in progress, on a scale commensurate with its importance, and on the plan which its projector advocated from the first, and, amidst all opposing influences, never ceased to advocate, — that, namely, of a canal primarily of irrigation, but provided with all works necessary for purposes of navigation." The delay of so many years had but made the necessity for the work more urgent, while the accuracy and completeness of the calculations and surveys on which the project was based had been thoroughly tested.

The canal which, since 1848, has been going on steadily till it is now approaching its completion, is the most magnificent public work in India, and hardly surpassed by any in the world. Starting from Hurdwar, where the Ganges breaks through the rocky outworks of the Himalayas, it continues its abundant course through the heart of the Doab, throwing off branches on either side "which rival the largest of the existing canals," till it reaches its terminus at Allahabad, having traversed, with its branches, a total distance of 898 miles from its commencement. "The only obstacles," says Captain Smith, "to the construction of the canal are met with on the first twenty miles from the head, or between Hurdwar and Roorkee. These difficulties arise from the course of the canal intersecting at right angles the whole of the drainage of the Sub-Himalayas, of which the western valley of the Ganges is the receptacle."

The town of Hurdwar, where the canal begins, is a picturesque and curious place. It is a sort of miniature Benares. Nowhere can be found a contrast more striking between the beauties and excellence of nature, and the perverse superstitions which men have associated with her noblest displays. The town lies on a narrow strip of land between the wooded hills, whose steep sides rise abruptly over it, and the river that flows at their feet. Here is the gateway through which the Ganges passes from the mountains which guard its source, down to the open plains; and to this spot multitudes of pilgrims resort to bathe in the unpolluted stream, and to carry away the purifying waters to the furthest limits of India. The narrow, dirty streets of the town are crowded with priests, devotees, and mendicants, many of whom are hardly more human in their aspect than the monkeys that run over the

tilled roofs of the bazaar. The river bank is lined with pagodas and other edifices of stone, from which broad flights of steps lead down to the sacred bathing place. When the canal was commenced, the Bramins, who gained their livelihood from the pilgrims attracted by the reputed sanctity of the place, were alarmed lest the sacred character of Hurdwar might be destroyed. But care was taken to remove their fear by dealing with it in the most considerate manner, by improving the place for bathing, and by clearing the bed of the river where it passes by the town. A more general feeling among the natives was, that the work was one of most unmitigated presumption, and that nothing could be more absurd than to suppose that the mighty Gunga would ever so far forget herself as to forsake her ancient channel and consent to flow in a new one made by sacrilegious hands.* It was not, as we have heard, until after the water had been actually let on to a small portion of the works, that their doubts began to give way.

The first masonry works are at Myapur, a mile and a half south of Hurdwar. A branch of the river having been taken possession of up to this point, it is here that the artificial channel commences, "having a constant width at bottom of 140 feet, and a variable width at top dependent on the depth of excavation, but which may be stated generally to be about 200 feet. The depth of water provided for, is 10 feet and the slope of the bed about 18 inches per mile." It might be wearisome to describe the various works by which the canal is brought over the frequent difficulties which present themselves in the few next miles,—though in neglecting to do

* Mr. Raikes, in his very useful and interesting "Notes on the North-West Provinces," gives an entertaining account of the difficulties of a native Deputy Collector in getting the children of his district to go to school. The story is told by Rung Lal, the deputy. Part of it illustrates the popular belief to which we have alluded above. "When the people gave up this notion, a new fancy was brought out: sixteen schools, out of four-and-twenty in the jurisdiction of your humble servant, were stopped; yes, absolutely closed; and what, sir, do you suppose, was the reason? The old women spread a report that the Ganges Canal, which has been so long cutting, would not *chul*, that the water would not run in it, and that the boys were not really wanted for *education*, but for *sacrifice* to propitiate Gunga-jee! The schools, as I say, were deserted until I went round to the villages, and swore upon the Ganges water that there was no real cause for alarm."

this, we are obliged to omit the account of many things worthy of note. But we cannot pass over the works in the Solani valley, not quite twenty miles from Hurdwar, with the same silence, both because they are the most important works on the line of the canal, and because some of our own pleasantest associations with India belong to them and to the station of Roorghi, which overlooks their course. And here, again, we will make use of Captain Smith's words, being unable to improve and unwilling to alter them. After passing through a high ridge of land, about two miles in breadth, the canal enters the valley of the Solani, which, at this point, is two and a quarter miles wide.

"The level of the canal bed begins to rise at once above the surface of the country; and the great work of embanking the channel, or forming the earthen aqueduct, commences.

"This work, by which the canal is brought through the valley to the Solani river, will consist of an earthen embankment, or platform, raised to an average height of about 16.1-2 feet above the country, having a base of about 350 feet in width, and a breadth at top of about 290 feet. On this platform, the banks of the canal will be formed, 30 feet in width at top and 12 feet in depth. These banks will be protected from the action of the water by lines of masonry, retaining walls formed in steps, extending along their entire length, or for nearly 2.1-4 miles north of the Solani.

"The river itself is crossed by a masonry aqueduct, which will be not merely the largest work of the kind in India, but one of the most remarkable for its dimensions in the world.

"The total length of the Solani aqueduct is 920 feet. Its clear waterway is 750 feet, in 15 arches of 50 feet span each. The breadth of each arch is 192 feet. Its thickness is 5 feet: its form is that of the segment of a circle, with a rise of 8 feet. The piers rest upon blocks of masonry, sunk 20 feet deep in the bed of the river, and being cubes of 20 feet side, pierced with four wells each, and undersunk in the manner practised by natives of India, in constructing their wells. These foundations, throughout the whole structure, are secured by every device that knowledge or experience could suggest; and the quantity of masonry sunk beneath the surface will be scarcely less than that visible above it. The piers are 10 feet thick at the springing of the arches, and 12.1-2 feet in height. The total height of the structure, above the valley of the river, will be 38 feet. It will not, therefore, be

an imposing work when viewed from below, in consequence of this deficiency of elevation; but, when viewed from above, and when its immense breadth is observed, with its line of masonry channel, which, when completed, both north and south of the river, will be nearly three miles in length, the effect must be most striking.

“The waterway of the canal is formed in two separate channels, each 85 feet in width. The side walls are 8 feet thick and 12 deep, the expected depth of water being 10 feet.” “A continuation of the earthen aqueduct, about 3-4 of a mile in length, connects the masonry work with the high bank at Roorkhi, and brings the canal to the termination of the difficult portion of its course.” *

The details, which are here given, serve to show the thoroughness and security with which the work has been constructed. The waters will not be more safely confined within the natural walls of the cut through which they enter the valley, than within the revetments of the embankments and the sides of the aqueduct by which they cross it. During the dry season the Solani flows a scanty dribbling stream through a wide bed of sand; but when the rainy months set in, and the snows melt on the inaccessible summits of the mountains, it pours a swollen flood, which might well test the strength of any inferior work, but will, we may well believe, beat in vain against the solid, unshaken piers which support the more constant stream.

The town of Roorkhi, the head-quarters of the canal, was, a few years ago, but a small native village. It is now a flourishing, and rapidly increasing English station. It is a pleasant place, with its look of busy industry and fresh western activity.† A broad, uneven plain stretches off from the river to the

* It gives some further idea of the extent of these works to learn, from a report of Major Baker, that the construction of the aqueduct will require 84,000,000 of bricks, and 1,000,000 cubic feet of lime. The total cost of the canal from Hurdwar to Roorkhi will be about 3,000,000 rupees, of which, more than half is spent upon the aqueduct.

† We quote, from a manuscript journal, an account of a part of the scene at Roorkhi, in 1849. “Standing on the bridge that crosses the canal, one sees an unexampled sight for India. In order to transport materials and earth along the line of works, a railway, two or three miles in length, has been laid down, — the only railroad in Asia. The cars, drawn by horses, (engines have been sent for from England) are passing and repassing upon it. The natives understand such a labor-saving machine as this, — every other contrivance, however novel, they have seemed to regard with little admiration or surprise. Thousands of them are busy at brick-laying or excavating, or engaged in other sorts of labor required on the works. They

foot of the mountains that rise, range upon range, in the early morning light, but whose more distant peaks are hidden in the glare of the full day. There was a propriety in choosing this place as the head-quarters of the canal, not less from its natural situation, than from the character of the neighboring works. The work-shops, model-room, and offices needed for the canal, are well established, and it is now some years since a College was opened, which, "under its excellent Principal, Lieut. Maclagan, of the Engineers, promises to become an institution of the highest utility to the canal and other departments of public works," as well as to the country generally, by raising up a class of native and European Civil Engineers, who may assist in the maintenance of the existing, and the creation of new, works for the public good.*

But we are lingering too long at Roorghi, and must proceed to the further description of the canal. From this point it continues, with an easy and unimpeded course, for about fifty miles, when it throws off its first branch, which stretches away for 160 miles, and will have a discharge of 1240 cubic feet per second. Three other branches follow, at distant intervals, the longest of which runs for 172 miles.

"As each of the branches, as well as the main line, will be adapted for internal navigation, the commerce of the Doab will participate with its agriculture in the benefit to be derived from the canal. For purposes of cross communication, bridges will be provided at every two

all labor under the immediate direction of native superintendents. It is a striking thing to see them thus employed in accomplishing a work that is to be of infinite advantage to themselves, and learning, at the same time, by the practical teaching of experience, the lessons most important to be learned by Hindus — the power of combination, the benefits of association and mutual dependence, and the superiority of other science and arts to their own. At a little distance lies an immense field covered with brick kilns, some in process of building, some with the smoke issuing from their tops, some already burnt and ready for use. 100,000 bricks are turned out daily for the construction of the aqueduct. Altogether, viewing the canal itself, the little new town, and all this activity there is no place in India where the contrasts between the past and the present are more impressive or more satisfactory." Lieutenant Goodwyn, of the Engineers, was at this time at the head of this division of the canal. His great merits as an officer were not more than his kindness as a friend.

* Lieutenant Maclagan has been during the present year on a visit to this country, engaged in the examination of our various educational institutions. The interests of the College at Roorghi could not be in more faithful hands.

or three miles. All the various works required for the regulation of the supply, for the convenience of the establishment, for mills, &c., will be constructed wherever required. Plantations will be formed within the canal limits, on each bank. Orchards of grafted mango trees, similar to those so successfully established on the Eastern Jumna Canal, are estimated for. The transverse section of the canal is gradually diminished, as each branch draws off its proportion of the supply from the main line."

The cost of the whole canal is estimated at one and a half millions sterling, and "there is no probability that this estimate will be exceeded." To authorize so large an expense, the government must have been well satisfied that the returns would be proportioned to the outlay. And such, indeed, they promise to be. The enormous extent of territory that will come within the influence of the canal, and the consequent increase of revenue from the land, appears from the following extract:

"Supposing," (we quote again from our authority,) "that the full supply of the canal, being 6,750 cubic feet per second, is rendered available for irrigation, as ultimately we have no doubt it will be, we know from experience on the canals of the Jumna, that each cubic foot of this discharge is sufficient for the irrigation, during the year, of 218 acres. The total area, which would be actually watered during the year, would, consequently, amount to $6,750 \times 218 = 1,471,500$ acres, or, for facility of calculation, say 1,500,000.

"Assuming as a standard of comparison for the whole of the Doab, the best irrigated district on the Eastern Jumna Canal, ... we find ... that irrigating villages actually water one third of their total areas. Consequently, the supply of the Ganges Canal would furnish abundant irrigation for an area of $1,500,000 \times 3 = 4,500,000$ acres.

"In districts benefiting by canal irrigation, it is found that for such localities as, from position, difficulties of level, or other causes, cannot be provided with water, irrigation from wells is extensively employed. From data given in the Special Committee's report, it would appear that, in the best irrigated district on the Western Jumna Canal, the proportion of canal to well irrigation is as five to one; assuming this for the Doab, we should have an area, irrigated from wells, amounting to 900,000 acres.

"The total area, for which irrigation would be provided, would, accordingly, amount to 5,400,000 acres. But the whole irrigable area

of the Doab is, as formerly shown, 11,102,048 acres. This tract of country would therefore be irrigated to the extent of very nearly one half its surface, — a proportion equal to that of the best district west, and nearly double that of the best district east, of the Jumna. In making this comparison, it should not be overlooked that the best districts on existing canals have been selected as standards for the whole Doab, a measure which tends to give a more limited range to the influence of the Ganges Canal than would have been the case had inferior tracts been selected. But we are anxious to avoid all appearance of exaggeration in estimating the benefits to be anticipated from this great work."

Over this wide extent of country, — down this new valley of the Ganges, — the steady flow of irrigation will be like a fertilizing inundation, lasting the whole year round. We cannot go through, in detail, with the facts upon which the estimates of the annual returns from the canal, and the probable cost of its maintenance, are based, nor with those relating to the pecuniary value of the crops improved and secured by it.* We must be content to take Captain Smith's summary of them; but in reading his statement it is to be observed that, on every point, he has rather understated than exaggerated the prospective results. There is no need, indeed, of exaggeration in describing such a work and such results. The simple facts, most moderately stated, are sufficiently surprising and eloquent.

"We have shown," he says, "that the canal will add to the revenue of the government the sum of £350,000 per annum; that it will protect from the risk of famine a tract of country, containing upwards of 11,000,000 acres, inhabited by nearly six and a half millions of souls, and paying to the state an annual land revenue of nearly £1,800,000. It has farther been shown that, in the event of a failure of the ordinary rains, agricultural property to the value of seven and a half millions sterling would be secured to the community; that an increase in the produce of the land, valued at £1,200,000 per annum, would be obtained; and that, as compared with the only other available method

* These facts are, in many cases, derived from statistics prepared by order of the government of the North-Western Provinces. This government deserves the highest credit for directing the collection and publication of these and other valuable statistics upon different branches of administration. It is as far in advance of the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay governments in this as in most other respects.

of irrigation, a saving of expense to the amount of two and a half millions annually would be effected."

Two objections have been raised to this great work, which, if well founded, would have diminished, in a considerable degree, the completeness of the satisfaction with which we believe it is to be regarded. The first of these was that the "abstraction at Hurdwar of so large a portion of the stream as 6750 out of 8000 cubic feet per second," would be of very serious injury to the navigation on the river. It has, however, been shown in the original reports on the works, and in the article which has been our chief authority throughout this account of the canals, that there is a great percolation of water through the porous stratum of shingle composing the bed of the upper part of the river, and that this water again "makes its appearance when, at the lower levels of the river's course, the substratum of clay outcrops and the porous shingle bed terminates." In addition to this supply, the volume of the stream is increased below Hurdwar by various tributaries, — so that, notwithstanding so large a portion is originally taken off by the canal, enough will still remain for all the usual needs of navigation. Nor is it to be forgotten that the canal itself will afford many facilities for navigation, and that the revenue from it will supply the government with ample means to improve the channel of the river, if it should be found that the capacities of the stream have been injured, or the interests of the towns upon its banks have suffered by the construction of the works for irrigation.

Another objection has been "based on the supposed insalubrity of irrigation, as exemplified in parts of the existing canals of the Jumna." This objection early excited the attention of the government, and a special committee was appointed for the purpose of examining the existence and character of the danger from this source. Their report was prepared with great care, and is one of much general interest. It conclusively proved that unhealthiness was not a necessary consequence of irrigation by canals, but that it was an accidental consequence, developed in almost exact proportion to the degree in which the canals interfered with the free drainage of the country. In view of these conclusions, the

Ganges Canal has been constructed with the most careful regard to maintaining and improving the drainage of the country through which it passes; and various precautions, recommended by the committee, will be adopted in regulating the use of its waters. There seems no reason, therefore, to believe that the canal will produce any malarious influence within its districts; but, on the contrary, a reasonable ground for hope that the increase of wealth and comfort, which it will bring to the people, may be accompanied with a diminution of disease.

The canal is now approaching its completion, and, before the end of 1854, the waters will flow in it through its entire length. The date of its opening will be a marked period in the history of the North-Western Provinces. Colonel Cautley, who has superintended its construction, with but a short interval, from its commencement almost to the present time, being forced by ill health to retire from the place of Superintendent, has been succeeded by Captain Baird Smith, who, as our readers have long since learned, is fitted to follow with equal steps such a predecessor, and to continue well, and still further develop, what has been so nobly begun. A government is happy that has such officers to fill its posts, and such works to be carried out by them.

We have given so much space to the description of these canals in the North-Western Provinces, that we can but refer, in the most brief manner, to those in the other parts of India. In the settlement of the recently conquered territory of the Punjab, it has been felt that no surer method was afforded of bringing the disorganized, warlike, and restless population into a state of quiet, and of securing the gradual improvement of the people, and their good will towards the government, than by developing the resources of the country by means of canals and roads. Sir Henry Lawrence, a man of the highest character, and one of the ablest officers in India, being at the head of the local government of the Punjab, pressed the subject upon the notice of the Governor-General, and his recommendation being approved by Lord Dalhousie and by the Court of Directors, a canal, known as the Baree Doab Canal, is now in course of construction, which, drawing

its waters from the river Ravee, will extend, with its branches, 450 miles through the heart of the country. Nor is it improbable that the other large streams of the land of the five rivers, may shortly be made use of for a similar purpose.*

In the south of India, in the Madras Presidency, works have been constructed to employ the waters of the Cauvery river in artificial irrigation, with the most beneficial results; and others with a similar object are going on upon the Godavery and the Kistnah.

We have now sketched the present general condition of the system of canal irrigation in India. Many curious and interesting details have been necessarily omitted in so brief an account. But the system may be regarded as only in its beginning. Every year, we trust, will see some addition made to the territory watered by canals, and some new stream added to the catalogue of those which are employed in the service of the people.

It is impossible to take a general survey of these great works, even at this distance from them, without a feeling of the heartiest satisfaction that any men should have been able to effect so much good, and should have effected it so successfully. It is a proof not less of the scientific ability of the officers of the East India Company, than of their right feeling and their recognition of the responsibilities of their position. England, as well as India, may be proud of what they have done.

The canals, as we have seen, are productive of benefits beyond those of a merely material character. They are great moral agents. They are the promoters of peace and civilization not less than of fertility and plenty. "Statistical details and magisterial experience," says Baird Smith, in an admirable passage at the close of his work, on "Italian Irrigation," "show clearly that where irrigation, with its pleasant train of consequences, is introduced, crime diminishes, plenty and security prove the best policemen, lawless habits yield to their genial influences, and men who were the Ishmaelites of soci-

* It has been proposed to use the Sutlej, in a canal, for fertilizing the "hard desert," which lies to the east of that river. Such a work would have to create, not to benefit, agriculture in that district.

ety fall, without force or constraint, into the ranks of the great army of industry." Nor is their effect to be measured in a single generation; — it will grow with the growing population and increase, year by year, from century to century. They take their place at once with the kindest works of Nature herself, — for they partake of her enduring beneficence, her free and equal generosity. The native, whose fields are watered by a canal, will trust to it as he trusts to the changes of the seasons, and to the swelling of the seed in the ground.

We can imagine no higher satisfaction than that which may be felt by those who have constructed and directed these works. It is a privilege rarely attained to see the immediate good results of one's labors for others. But in this case, the work is hardly completed before those who have been engaged in it may behold the blessings which it brings. Without a metaphor, it is theirs

" To scatter plenty o'er a smiling land,
And read their history in a nation's eyes."

It is theirs to feel that they have laid a secure foundation for the permanent prosperity of the people whose interests have been committed to their hands.

The contrasts between these works of the English in India, and those left by the previous conquerors of the country, are a most striking exhibition of the differences in the character of their rule. The time of Eastern romance has gone by, but it is succeeded by a happier period of realities. The lustre of Eastern splendor is fading away, but in its place the steadier and clearer light of a generally diffused welfare is beginning to shine. The wealth of a whole people is no longer concentrated in the display of a single court, — but is spread over the land through innumerable channels. When Shah Jehan built the Taj Mahal at Agra, erecting the most exquisite building in the world, as the tomb for his wife, he spent, in its construction, more than twice the cost of the Ganges Canal.* The wealth expended on its marbles and mosaics was squeezed, by tyrannical extortion, from a poor and

* This building, which more than realizes all that has been dreamed or fancied of the beauties of Oriental architecture, is said to have cost 31,748,026 rupees.

overburdened people. Akbar, the best and most considerate of Indian emperors, is said to have kept in his stables 12,000 horses and 8,000 elephants, — the numbers are, very likely, rounded in the Eastern fashion; but the tradition of lavish luxury remains to show how the revenues of his territories were expended. “If we omit three names,” says Sir Henry Elliott, in his valuable work on the Historians of Mahomedan India, “if we omit three names in the long line of Delhi emperors, we shall find that the comfort and happiness of the people were never contemplated by them; and, with the exception of a few serais and bridges, and those only on roads traversed by the imperial camps,” we shall “see nothing in which purely selfish considerations did not prevail.”

Whatever may have been the mistakes and the faults of the East India Company's government in India, and they have been very many, there can be no question of the fact that it has been, on the whole, of incalculable benefit to the people. Were it to come to an end to-morrow, the works that we have described would remain as a monument of its regard for its subjects, and of the sincerity with which it sought their improvement. It is true that these works are not less important to the revenue of the state, than to the harvests of the husbandmen; but it does not detract from the merit of a government that its interests should be so far identical with those of the governed, as to be promoted by the same means. These canals are, indeed, one of the clearest examples of the truth, that to improve the condition of its people is not only the highest duty, but the most obvious policy of every government.

We will not enter here upon the question how far the East India Company has made this the rule of their policy. But there can be no doubt that this has been the spirit with which many of its servants have labored. It is, indeed, to the members of the civil and military services in India that the gradual improvement in the country is chiefly due. Their position is often one of great power and great responsibilities. In the preceding pages we have shown one instance of the manner in which they have used this power and met these responsibilities. Honoring what they have already done, believing

that this is but the earnest of what they will hereafter do, we heartily adopt the words with which Mr. Raikes, addressing the fellow-members of his service, closes his book : —

“ To raise up a degraded race ; to cure the plagues of past bad government and bad morals ; to prepare — if you may be so blessed — the way for real virtue and true religion : to this you are called ; and look round the world as you may, you will never find a more glorious vocation.”

ART. VII. — 1. *Uncle Tom's Cabin, or Life among the Lowly.*

By HARRIET BEECHER STOWE. Boston : J. P. Jewett & Co.
2 vols. 12mo.

2. *A Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin, presenting the Original Facts and Documents upon which the Story is founded, together with Corroborative Statements verifying the Truth of the Work.*

By HARRIET BEECHER STOWE. Boston : J. P. Jewett & Co. 1850. 8 vo. pp. 262.

It is quite too late in the day to review *Uncle Tom's Cabin* ; but it is not too late to speak of the subject to which it relates, and from which it derives much of its interest. Upon the discussion of this subject, surrounded as it is with difficulties, and hedged about with sensitive and vehement passions, the publication of Mrs. Stowe's work has exerted an important influence. It has not merely fanned the excitement of parties ; it has induced many sober and reflecting people, who had hitherto stood aloof from a controversy which had too much the aspect of a bitter political feud, managed on both hands with equal indiscretion and acrimony, to turn their thoughts towards it again, in the hope of finding some middle course, or of suggesting some plan which might have an effect to alleviate the evil which it seemed impossible to eradicate. It is for this class of persons only that the present article is intended.

The enthusiastic reception of Mrs. Stowe's novel is the result of various causes. One is the merit of the book itself.